

Fault-Tolerant Holonomic Quantum Computation

Ognyan Oreshkov,¹ Todd A. Brun,^{1,2} and Daniel A. Lidar^{1,2,3}

¹*Department of Physics, Center for Quantum Information Science & Technology, University of Southern California, Los Angeles, California 90089*

²*Department of Electrical Engineering, Center for Quantum Information Science & Technology, University of Southern California, Los Angeles, California 90089*

³*Department of Chemistry, Center for Quantum Information Science & Technology, University of Southern California, Los Angeles, California 90089*

(Received 4 June 2008; published 20 February 2009)

We explain how to combine holonomic quantum computation (HQC) with fault-tolerant quantum error correction. This establishes the scalability of HQC, putting it on equal footing with other models of computation, while retaining the inherent robustness the method derives from its geometric nature.

DOI: 10.1103/PhysRevLett.102.070502

PACS numbers: 03.67.Pp, 03.65.Vf

Introduction.—Holonomic quantum computation (HQC) [1] is an all-geometric method of computation that makes use of non-Abelian generalizations of the Berry phase [2]. It is a fundamental alternative to other established models of quantum computation (QC) [3], which in some sense lies between the circuit and adiabatic models, in that it replaces the dynamical gates of the circuit model by adiabatic holonomies. In HQC states are encoded in the degenerate eigenspace of a Hamiltonian and gates are realized by adiabatically varying the Hamiltonian along suitable paths in parameter space, giving rise to geometric transformations. HQC has attracted significant interest both because of its deep connections to gauge theory [4] and its potential practical advantages. It has been shown that due to its geometric nature, the method is resilient to various types of errors in the control parameters driving the evolution [5] and thus could provide a certain built-in robustness at the hardware level. On the other hand, geometric phases are susceptible to decoherence, a conclusion which also affects HQC [6].

No method of computation is scalable without the ability to implement it fault tolerantly, and HQC is no exception. However, unlike the circuit and one-way models of quantum computation [3] for which fault tolerance proofs exist under reasonable noise models [7–9], a demonstration that HQC can be made fault tolerant under similar assumptions has been lacking. Here we remedy this situation, establishing the in-principle scalability of HQC.

Fault-tolerant techniques guarantee that, under appropriate assumptions such as errors that are sufficiently uncorrelated and improbable, an arbitrarily large computational task can be implemented with relatively modest resource overhead that preserves the computational complexity class. This result, known as the threshold theorem, is based on the use of quantum error correcting codes (QECCs) [10]—a general software solution to the problems of noise and decoherence in quantum computers. In Ref. [11], a first step was taken to protect HQC against decoherence, by combining it with the method of

decoherence-free subspaces (DFSs) [12], leading to passive protection against certain types of correlated errors. However, this is not enough for fault tolerance, since other error types could accumulate detrimentally unless corrected. Therefore, scalability of HQC requires going beyond the scheme of Ref. [11], e.g., by combining the holonomic approach with *active* error correction. Here we present a scheme for fault-tolerant HQC using stabilizer QECCs [13]. We begin by briefly reviewing the basics of HQC and the main ingredients of fault-tolerant QC. We then show how these ingredients can be realized using holonomic transformations on QECCs, and prove that the construction is fault tolerant. Finally, we discuss the properties of the scheme and analyze its effect on the accuracy threshold.

Holonomic quantum computation.—Let $\{H_\lambda\}$ be an iso-degenerate family of Hamiltonians on an N -dimensional Hilbert space, which is continuously parameterized by a point λ in a differentiable control-parameter manifold \mathcal{M} , i.e., $H_\lambda = \sum_{n=1}^R \varepsilon_n(\lambda) \Pi_n(\lambda)$, where $\{\varepsilon_n(\lambda)\}_{n=1}^R$ are the R different d_n -fold degenerate eigenvalues of H_λ , ($\sum_{n=1}^R d_n = N$), and $\Pi_n(\lambda)$ are the projectors on the corresponding eigenspaces. If the parameter λ is changed adiabatically (i.e., sufficiently slowly to prevent transitions between different eigenspaces), the unitary evolution that results from the action of the Hamiltonian $H(t) := H_{\lambda(t)}$ is

$$U(t) = \mathcal{T} \exp\left(-i \int_0^t d\tau H(\tau)\right) = \bigoplus_{n=1}^R e^{i\omega_n(t)} U_{A_n}^\lambda(t), \quad (1)$$

where $\omega_n(t) = -\int_0^t d\tau \varepsilon_n(\lambda(\tau))$ is a dynamical phase, and

$$U_{A_n}^\lambda(t) = \mathcal{P} \exp\left(\int_{\lambda(0)}^{\lambda(t)} \sum_{\mu} A_{n,\mu} d\lambda^\mu\right). \quad (2)$$

Here \mathcal{T} and \mathcal{P} denote time ordering and path ordering. The adiabatic connection is $\sum_{\mu} A_{n,\mu} d\lambda^\mu$ where λ^μ are local coordinates on \mathcal{M} ($1 \leq \mu \leq \dim \mathcal{M}$), $A_{n,\mu}$ has matrix elements [4] $(A_{n,\mu})_{\alpha\beta} = \langle n\alpha; \lambda | \frac{\partial}{\partial \lambda^\mu} | n\beta; \lambda \rangle$, and $\{|n\alpha; \lambda\rangle\}_{\alpha=1}^{d_n}$

is an orthonormal basis of the n th eigenspace of the Hamiltonian at the point λ .

When the path $\lambda(t)$ forms a loop $\gamma(t)$, $\gamma(0) = \gamma(T) = \lambda_0$, the unitary matrix $U_{A_n}^\gamma(T) = \mathcal{P} \exp(\oint_\gamma \sum_\mu A_{n,\mu} d\lambda^\mu)$ is called the holonomy associated with the loop. When the n th energy level is nondegenerate ($d_n = 1$), the corresponding holonomy reduces to the Berry phase [2]. The space of all loops based on λ_0 is $L_{\lambda_0}(\mathcal{M}) \equiv \{\gamma: [0, T] \rightarrow \mathcal{M} | \gamma(0) = \gamma(T) = \lambda_0\}$. The set $\text{Hol}(A_n) = \{U_n^\gamma | \gamma \in L_{\lambda_0}(\mathcal{M})\}$ is a subgroup of $U(d_n)$ called the holonomy group. If the dimension of \mathcal{M} is sufficiently large, non-Abelian holonomies can be used to implement universal quantum computation over states encoded in one of the degenerate eigenspaces of $H(t)$ [1].

Fault-tolerant operations.—We are concerned with standard [13] and operator [14,15] stabilizer QECCs for the correction of single-qubit errors, and the techniques for fault-tolerant computation [7,8] on such codes. A quantum information processing scheme is called fault tolerant if a single error occurring during the implementation of any operation introduces at most one error per block of the code (a block is a set of qubits encoding one logical qubit). It is known [7] that fault-tolerant information processing is possible on any stabilizer code and can be realized almost entirely in terms of transversal operations—these are operations for which each qubit in a block interacts only with the corresponding qubit from another block or from a special ancillary state. In addition, it is required that we are able to prepare and verify a special ancillary state. Since single-qubit unitaries together with the “controlled-not” (CNOT) gate form a universal set of gates, fault-tolerant computation can be realized entirely in terms of single-qubit operations and CNOT operations between qubits from different blocks, assuming that the special state can be prepared reliably. Hence, our goal is to construct holonomic realizations of these operations, as well as of the operations needed for the preparation and use of the ancillary state.

The manner in which we combine HQC and QECCs is by embedding the entire stabilizer code space or code subsystem into the ground space of a two-level degenerate Hamiltonian H_λ or in a subsystem which is invariant under the action of H_λ . The Hamiltonian is an element of either the stabilizer or the gauge group of the code at the initial moment and remains an element of the *transformed* stabilizer or gauge group at every moment during the computation. We perform computation in both the ground and excited eigenspaces of H_λ . Note that in this regard we depart from the original HQC method [1], where computation is performed entirely within a single eigenspace. Even though the geometric approach requires the use of degenerate Hamiltonians which unavoidably couple qubits within the same block, we show that propagation of single-qubit errors can be avoided.

The scheme.—Consider a stabilizer code for the correction of arbitrary single-qubit errors. We first show how to implement encoded Clifford gates on such a code (Clifford

gates are those that preserve the Pauli group—the group of tensor products of Pauli operators). It is known [7] that these gates can be realized using transversal Clifford operations. For simplicity we restrict our attention to implementing transversal operations on the first qubit in each block; the operations on the remaining qubits can be obtained analogously, and used to complete the encoded Clifford gates on or between code blocks. As a starting Hamiltonian for implementing a single-qubit operation, we choose an operator that is an element of the stabilizer, or the gauge group (for the case of subsystem codes [15]), and acts nontrivially on that qubit. Without loss of generality we can write the initial Hamiltonian as $\hat{H}(0) = -Z \otimes \tilde{G}$, where X , Y , and Z are the Pauli matrices, and \tilde{G} is a tensor product of Pauli matrices on the rest of the qubits in the block and possibly on qubits from other blocks if we are in the middle of an entangling operation. (We can assume that \tilde{G} spreads over at most 4 blocks, since this is sufficient for implementing transversally any encoded Clifford operation on stabilizer codes [7].) Henceforth a *hat* denotes operators on all qubits and *tilde* on all qubits excluding the first one. It is not hard to show [16] that if the Hamiltonian is varied adiabatically so that only the first factor changes,

$$\hat{H}(t) = -H(t) \otimes \tilde{G}, \quad (3)$$

where $\text{Tr}\{H(t)\} = 0$, then the geometric transformation resulting in each of the eigenspaces is equal to a local unitary operation on the first qubit:

$$\hat{U}(t) = U(t) \otimes \tilde{I}; \quad U(t) = U_{A_0}(t) \oplus U_{A_1}(t), \quad (4)$$

where $U_{A_n}(t) = e^{\int_0^t d\tau \langle \phi_n(\tau) | (d/d\tau) | \phi_n(\tau) \rangle} | \phi_n(t) \rangle \langle \phi_n(0) |$, with $| \phi_n(t) \rangle$ being the ground ($n = 0$) and excited ($n = 1$) states of $H(t)$.

Equation (4) is the basis of our construction. If $\hat{H}(0)$ is minus an element of the stabilizer, then the code space belongs to its ground space. Assuming that the encoded state has not undergone an error, by varying the factor $H(t)$ adiabatically we can effectively generate any single-qubit unitary transformation on the state (we show how to do this below). If the initial Hamiltonian is an operator in the gauge group for the case of subsystem codes, the non-erroneous state of the system can be a superposition of ground and excited states. According to Eq. (4), each of the ground and excited components will undergo the same single-qubit unitary transformation $U(t)$, but in addition, a relative phase of dynamical origin will accumulate between the two. This relative phase is equivalent to an operation on the transformed gauge subsystem, and therefore does not affect the encoded state.

Single-qubit operations.—We now show how the method above can be used to generate a set of standard single-qubit gates. It turns out [16] that any Hamiltonian of the type (3) where

$$H(t) = f(t)Z + g(t)V_{\theta_\pm} Z V_{\theta_\pm}^\dagger \equiv f(t)Z + g(t)H_{\theta_\pm} \quad (5)$$

with $f(T) = g(0) = 0$, and $f(0), g(T) > 0$, gives rise in the

adiabatic limit to the geometric single-qubit unitary transformation

$$V_{\theta\pm} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \mp e^{-i\theta} \\ \pm e^{i\theta} & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (6)$$

where θ is a real parameter. Let us define the eigenstates of $H(t)$ at time T as $|\phi_n(T)\rangle = V_{\theta\pm}|n\rangle$, $n \in \{0, 1\}$. We can then write $U_{A_n}(T) = e^{i\alpha_n} V_{\theta\pm}|n\rangle\langle n|$, where α_n are geometric phases, and we can show that $e^{i\alpha_0} = e^{i\alpha_1}$ [16]. Therefore, up to a global phase, Eq. (4) yields $U(T) = V_{\theta\pm}$. Using the last result and the identity $\pm(\cos\theta X + \sin\theta Y) = H_{\theta\pm}$, one can verify the following constructions: an adiabatic interpolation along the path $-Z \otimes \tilde{G} \rightarrow -X \otimes \tilde{G}$ yields the operation $V_{0+} = RZ$ where R is the Hadamard gate; an adiabatic interpolation along the path $-Z \otimes \tilde{G} \rightarrow -(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}X + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}Y) \otimes \tilde{G} \rightarrow Z \otimes \tilde{G}$ yields $V_{\pi/4-}^\dagger V_{\pi/4+} = V_{\pi/4+}^\dagger$, which up to an overall phase is equal to XS where S is the Phase gate. RZ and XS can generate all single-qubit operations in the Clifford group. Note that single-qubit gates outside the Clifford group can also be implemented in a similar manner [16]. We point out that the change of the Hamiltonian along the edges of the paths must be sufficiently slow so that the adiabatic approximation [17] is satisfied within the desired precision; we return to the validity of the adiabatic approximation below.

Completing the gate set.—To complete the set of gates needed for encoded Clifford operations, we only have to show how to implement a transversal CNOT gate with the first qubit being the target. At the moments between the basic operations building up an encoded Clifford gate, we can always find \tilde{G} which acts trivially on the control qubit. Then the CNOT gate can be applied by first applying the inverse of the Phase gate on the control, as well as the transformation $-Z \otimes \tilde{G} \rightarrow -Y \otimes \tilde{G}$ on the target, followed by the transformation $-I^c \otimes Y \otimes \tilde{G} \rightarrow -Z^c \otimes Z \otimes \tilde{G}$ where the superscript c denotes the control.

Encoded operations outside of the Clifford group require the above transformations plus the ability to measure a particular encoded Clifford operator [7]. The latter involves applying the operator conditioned on the qubits in a “cat” state $(|0\dots 0\rangle + |1\dots 1\rangle)/\sqrt{2}$. If we were implementing solely the Clifford operator, at any stage between the elementary gates we would use a stabilizer or gauge-group element of the form $\hat{G} = G_1 \otimes G_{\bar{1}}$, where G_1 is a tensor product of Pauli matrices acting on the first qubits from the blocks, and $G_{\bar{1}}$ is an operator on the rest of the qubits. Applying a basic transversal operation O conditioned on the first qubit in a cat state transforms this operator as $I^c \otimes G_1 \otimes G_{\bar{1}} \rightarrow |0\rangle\langle 0|^c \otimes G_1 \otimes G_{\bar{1}} + |1\rangle\langle 1|^c \otimes O G_1 O^\dagger \otimes G_{\bar{1}}$, where the superscript c denotes the control qubit from the cat state. The corresponding gate can be implemented via the Hamiltonian $\hat{H}_O(t) = -|0\rangle\langle 0|^c \otimes G_1 \otimes G_{\bar{1}} - \alpha(t)|1\rangle\langle 1|^c \otimes H_O(t) \otimes G_{\bar{1}}$, where $H_O(t) \otimes G_{\bar{1}}$ is the Hamiltonian that we would use for the implementation of the operation O , and $\alpha(t)$ is chosen so that the

operator $\alpha(t)|1\rangle\langle 1|^c \otimes H_O(t) \otimes G_{\bar{1}}$ has the same instantaneous spectrum as $|0\rangle\langle 0|^c \otimes G_1 \otimes G_{\bar{1}}$. (Any possible relative geometric phase between $|0\rangle^c$ and $|1\rangle^c$ can be corrected by a suitable gate on the control qubit.) Starting from $\hat{H}_O(T)$, we can implement another conditional transversal operation in a similar fashion, etc.

Fault tolerance of the scheme.—So far we have shown how to generate any transversal operation on an encoded state holonomically, assuming that the state is nonerroneous. But what if an error occurs on one of the qubits? At any time t , we can distinguish two types of errors: those that result in transitions between the ground and excited spaces of $H(t)$, and those that result in transformations inside the eigenspaces. Because of the discretization of errors in quantum error correction (QEC), it suffices to prove correctability for each type separately. The key property of our construction is that the geometric transformation is the same in each of the eigenspaces, and it is transversal. Because of this, if we are applying a unitary on the first qubit, an error on that qubit will remain localized regardless of whether it causes an excitation or not. If the error occurs on one of the other qubits, at the end of the transformation the result would be the desired single-qubit unitary gate plus the error on the other qubit, which is correctable. It is remarkable that even though the Hamiltonian couples qubits within the same block, single-qubit errors do not propagate. This is because the coupling between the qubits amounts to a change in the relative phase between the ground and excited spaces, but the latter is irrelevant since it is either equivalent to a gauge transformation, or when we apply a correcting operation we project on one of the eigenspaces. In the case of the CNOT gate, an error can propagate between the control and the target qubits, but it never results in two errors within the same code word.

In addition to transversal operations, a complete fault-tolerant scheme requires the ability to prepare, verify and use special ancillary states, e.g., Shor’s cat state [8]. Since the cat state is known and its construction is non-fault-tolerant, this can always be done using our holonomic approach by treating each initially prepared qubit as a simple code (with \tilde{G} being trivial), and updating the stabilizer of the code via the applied geometric transformation as the operation progresses. The only difference is in the measurement of the parity of the state, which requires the ability to apply successively CNOT operations from two different qubits in the cat state to one and the same ancillary qubit initially prepared in the state $|0\rangle$. After this operation, the ancilla qubit is measured in the $\{|0\rangle, |1\rangle\}$ basis so the relative phase between these two states is irrelevant. We can regard the qubit in state $|0\rangle$ as a simple code with stabilizer $\langle Z \rangle$, and we can apply the first CNOT as described before. Even though after this operation the state of the target qubit is unknown, the second CNOT can be applied via the same interaction, since the transformation in each eigenspace of the Hamiltonian is the same.

Discussion.—Since the method we presented conforms completely to a given fault-tolerant scheme, it does not affect the error threshold per operation for that scheme. Some of its features, however, affect the threshold for *environment* noise. First, observe that when applying the Hamiltonian (3), we cannot at the same time apply operations on the other qubits on which the factor \tilde{G} acts nontrivially. This could be a problem for nonconcatenation schemes, but with concatenated codes it only affects the lowest level of concatenation—some operations at the lowest level that would otherwise be implemented simultaneously might have to be implemented serially. This has the effect of slowing down the circuit by a small constant factor. For example, it turns out that for the 9-qubit Bacon-Shor (BS) subsystem code [14] this slowdown is by a factor of 1.5 [16].

A more significant slowdown results from the fact that the evolution is adiabatic (however, as argued in Ref. [18], an adiabatic implementation may be unavoidable in the case of Markovian noise, since fast gates are incompatible with the Markovian limit). In order to obtain a rough estimate of the slowdown due specifically to the adiabatic requirement, we compare the time T_h needed for the implementation of a holonomic gate with precision $1 - \delta$ to the time T_d needed for a dynamical realization of the same gate with the same strength of the Hamiltonian. We consider a realization of the X gate via the Hamiltonian $H(t) = V_X(y(t))ZV_X^\dagger(y(t))$, $V_X(y(t)) = \exp(iy(t)\frac{\pi}{2T_h}X)$, where $y(0) = 0$, $y(T_h) = T_h$. The energy gap of this Hamiltonian is constant. The optimal dynamical implementation of the same gate is via the Hamiltonian $-X$ for time $T_d = \frac{\pi}{2}$. It is known that if $H(t)$ is smooth (but nonanalytic) and its derivatives vanish at $t = 0$ and $t = T_h$, the adiabatic error decreases superpolynomially with T_h [17]. To achieve this, we choose $y(t) = \frac{1}{a} \times \int_0^t dt' e^{-1/\sin(\pi t'/T_h)}$, $a = y(T_h)$. For this interpolation, when $T_h/T_d \approx 17$, the error δ is already $\sim 10^{-6}$, which is below the threshold values obtained, e.g., for the BS codes ($\sim 10^{-4}$) [19]. This slowdown would decrease the allowed rate of environment decoherence by a similar factor. But dynamical gates are not perfect in practice, and the holonomic approach may be advantageous if it leads to higher operational precision.

In Ref. [16] we show that for the BS code our scheme can be implemented with at most 3-local Hamiltonians. This is optimal for the construction we presented, since there are no codes correcting arbitrary single-qubit errors with stabilizer or gauge-group elements of weight smaller than 2, covering all qubits. An interesting open question is whether it is possible to modify our construction so that it uses 2-local interactions, perhaps using recent perturbative “gadget” ideas [20].

Our abstract scheme proves that the holonomic quantum computing approach is scalable under a reasonable noise model. It is meant as a proof of principle, and will undoubtedly require modifications if applied to actual physi-

cal systems. Given that simple QECCs and two-qubit geometric transformations have been realized using NMR [21] and ion-trap [22] techniques, these systems seem particularly suitable for hybrid HQC-QEC implementations.

Research supported by NSF under Grants No. CCF-0524822 (to O. O.), No. CCF-0448658 (to T. A. B.), and No. CCF-0523675 (to D. A. L.). The authors thank Paolo Zanardi for illuminating discussions.

-
- [1] P. Zanardi and M. Rasetti, Phys. Lett. A **264**, 94 (1999); J. Pachos, P. Zanardi, and M. Rasetti, Phys. Rev. A **61**, 010305(R) (1999).
 - [2] M. Berry, Proc. R. Soc. A **392**, 45 (1984).
 - [3] Circuit model: D. Deutsch, Proc. R. Soc. A **425**, 73 (1989); One-way model: R. Raussendorf and H.J. Briegel, Phys. Rev. Lett. **86**, 5188 (2001); Adiabatic QC model: E. Farhi *et al.*, arXiv:quant-ph/0001106.
 - [4] F. Wilczek and A. Zee, Phys. Rev. Lett. **52**, 2111 (1984).
 - [5] A. Carollo *et al.*, Phys. Rev. Lett. **90**, 160402 (2003); G. De Chiara and G.M. Palma, Phys. Rev. Lett. **91**, 090404 (2003); I. Fuentes-Guridi, F. Girelli, and E. Livine, Phys. Rev. Lett. **94**, 020503 (2005); S.-L. Zhu and P. Zanardi, Phys. Rev. A **72**, 020301 (2005); G. Florio *et al.*, Phys. Rev. A **73**, 022327 (2006).
 - [6] M. S. Sarandy and D. A. Lidar, Phys. Rev. A **73**, 062101 (2006).
 - [7] D. Gottesman, Phys. Rev. A **57**, 127 (1998).
 - [8] E. Knill, R. Laflamme, and W. Zurek, Science **279**, 342 (1998); A. M. Steane, Phys. Rev. A **68**, 042322 (2003); P. Aliferis, D. Gottesman, and J. Preskill, Quantum Inf. Comput. **6**, 97 (2006).
 - [9] P. Aliferis and D. W. Leung, Phys. Rev. A **73**, 032308 (2006).
 - [10] P. W. Shor, Phys. Rev. A **52**, R2493 (1995); A. M. Steane, Phys. Rev. Lett. **77**, 793 (1996).
 - [11] L.-A. Wu, P. Zanardi, and D. A. Lidar, Phys. Rev. Lett. **95**, 130501 (2005).
 - [12] P. Zanardi and M. Rasetti, Phys. Rev. Lett. **79**, 3306 (1997); D. A. Lidar, I. L. Chuang, and K. B. Whaley, Phys. Rev. Lett. **81**, 2594 (1998).
 - [13] D. Gottesman, Phys. Rev. A **54**, 1862 (1996); A. R. Calderbank *et al.*, Phys. Rev. Lett. **78**, 405 (1997).
 - [14] D. Bacon, Phys. Rev. A **73**, 012340 (2006).
 - [15] D. W. Kribs, R. Laflamme, and D. Poulin, Phys. Rev. Lett. **94**, 180501 (2005); D. Poulin, Phys. Rev. Lett. **95**, 230504 (2005).
 - [16] O. Oreshkov, T. Brun, and D. A. Lidar (to be published).
 - [17] G. A. Hagedorn and A. Joye, J. Math. Anal. Appl. **267**, 235 (2002).
 - [18] R. Alicki, D. A. Lidar, and P. Zanardi, Phys. Rev. A **73**, 052311 (2006).
 - [19] P. Aliferis and A. W. Cross, Phys. Rev. Lett. **98**, 220502 (2007).
 - [20] S. Jordan and E. Farhi, Phys. Rev. A **77**, 062329 (2008).
 - [21] D. G. Cory *et al.*, Phys. Rev. Lett. **81**, 2152 (1998); J. A. Jones *et al.*, Nature (London) **403**, 869 (2000).
 - [22] D. Leibfried *et al.*, Nature (London) **422**, 412 (2003); J. Chiaverini *et al.*, Nature (London) **432**, 602 (2004).